Chapter 2
Review of Literature

“We do the same with our learners in a classroom. We set all the objectives, we tell them exactly how to learn, and the more I listened to adults talk about their own power and their own skill and confidence at learning, the more I began to question my teaching approach. Why was I making these choices for students? And of course, I shifted toward being more learner centered and letting learners make a lot of their own choices.”

(Allen Tough, Professor Emeritus, University of Toronto, Malcolm Knowles Memorial Self-Directed Learning Award, 2006)

Measures of human worth do not depend on ability related to academic performance. Moreover, continuing learning is a goal of human life for the purpose of self-fulfilment and self-actualization. Each one of us has the potential for self-directed learning, are interested in a wide variety of subjects and learn for numerous reasons, and also utilize numerous resources in his/her learning. The present chapter attempts to critically review the literature available on self-directed learning and self-assessment ever since we conceptualised these processes and have marked their gradual but certain transition from informal approach to a formal one.

Key to understanding the concepts of self-directed learning is the acceptance of the fact that the planning and facilitation of learning by adults can be quite varied. Several researchers have examined the range of self-directed learning
and self-assessment. Major exponents that have contributed to the development of SDL and their perspectives include the names like Ralph Brockett and Roger Hiemstra who support the view that the concept of self-direction in adult learning should not be limited to the term self-directed learning instead it should be taken as a broader perspective. They propagated self-directed learning as a process where learner assumes primary responsibility for planning, implementing, and evaluating the learning process.

Next name in the list is that of Stephen D. Brookfield who termed SDL as a process where learners generate goals, identify resources, rate their progress, and evaluate themselves. Rosemary Caffarella opined not to consider SDL as the epitome of adult learning due to the role of cultural traditions whereas Philip Candy concluded that self-direction has been used as a personal quality or attribute and as the independent pursuit of learning outside formal instructional settings. According to Lucy Guglielmino believed that self-direction in learning can occur in a wide variety of situations, ranging from a teacher-directed classroom to self-planned and self-conducted learning projects. However, she asserted that personal characteristics of the learner will ultimately determine whether self-directed learning will take place in a given learning situation. The next big gun is Malcolm S. Knowles, champion of andragogy, self-direction in learning, and informal adult education who was of
the opinion that adults are self-directing when they undertake to learn something on their own and produced model of self-directed learning. Huey B. Long concludes not to expect those people to be self-directed learner that have been spoon fed with information. To him, environments that nurture, sustain, and develop the personality and cognitive attributes are important in the development of self-directed learners. Allen Tough clearly favours self-directed learning by confirming to the theory that a teacher need not make choices for the students.

In case of self-assessment among others Blue while studying self assessment among university students suggested that it has serious limitations as a method obtaining an accurate assessment of language proficiency. Other studies such as those by Janssen-van Dieten and by Peirce, Swain and Hart have also questioned the learner’s ability to assess their own progress. Chamot and O’Malley too point out that self-rating requires the student to exercise a variety of learning strategies and higher thinking skills that not only provide feedback but also direction for future learning.
However, with the development of self-directed learning, many related concepts have also emerged and are often used interchangeably in some ways. Examples include

1. **Self-Planned Learning**

   Tough (1979)\(^2\) emphasized the concept of self-planned learning. His research was concerned with a specific portion of the process: the “planning and deciding” aspects of learning. This predominance of self-planning initiated considerable research on self-directed learning.

2. **Learning Projects**

   The primary basis for definitional of this term comes again from the seminal work by Tough (1979)\(^3\). It refers to a series of clearly related learning efforts adding up to at least seven hours of effort within a six-month period. Tough used the seven-hour parameter because he felt it approximated a typical working day and separated brief learning activities from more major endeavours.

3. **Self-Education**

   In view of Gibbons and Phillips (1982)\(^4\) self education is not formal education. The skills in self-education can be taught and practised in
schools. However, the teacher would gradually empower the learners to take responsibility for self-direction and to stimulate self-education. Self-education can truly occur when people are not compelled to learn, others are not compelled to teach them, especially a particular subject matter. True self-education can only occur when a person has a choice to learn as well as not to learn. This forms the rationale for what has come to be called Choice-based Credit System, which the UGC has directed universities all over the country, and which has been practised in the European university for decades now.

According to Ruvinsky (1986)\(^5\), the role of self-education naturally increases in adults, for the potential possibilities of the personality are extremely great, and the formed world outlook would make it possible to develop one's abilities more successfully, systematically and comprehensively. Interestingly, Hosmer (1847)\(^6\) described self-education in the 19\(^{th}\) century as follows:

The common opinion seems to be that self-education is distinguished by the manner of its acquisition. It is thought to denote simply acquirements made without a teacher, or at all events without oral instruction advantages always comprehended in the ordinary cause of education. But this merely negative circumstance, however important, . . . is
only one of several particulars equally characteristic of self-
education . . . . Besides the absence of many, or all of the
usual facilities for learning, there are at least three things
peculiar to this enterprise, namely: the longer time required,
the wider range of studies, and the higher character of its
object. (p. 42)

4. Autonomous Learning

An opportunity to learn things by oneself is the general meaning of
autonomous learning. This implies that the person has the ability to choose
what is valuable to him by taking charge of his/her learning process and doing
so with full consciousness. This charge of one’s own learning includes to have
the responsibility for all the decisions concerning all aspects of learning ie.
objectives of learning, content to be learnt, learning methods and techniques
and also the monitoring acquisition and its evaluation. David Little describes
five points that talk about what autonomous learning is not. According to him,

1. Autonomy is not a synonym for self-instruction; in other words, autonomy
   is not limited to learning without a teacher.

2. In the classroom context, autonomy does not entail and abdication of
   responsibility on the part of the teacher; it is not a matter of letting the
   learners get on with things as best they can.
3. On the other hand, autonomy is not something that teachers do to learners; that is, it is not another teaching method.

4. Autonomy is not a single, easily described behavior.

5. Autonomy is not a steady state achieved by learners. (Little, 1990)

Concept of Autonomous Learning in the field of language education originated way back in the late 1960s. The first entry of the concept of autonomy in the field of language teaching was through a project established by Council of Europe’s Modern Language Project in 1971. The major outcome of this project was the establishment of the Centre de Recherches et Applications en Langues (CRAPEL) at the university of Nancy, France, which quickly became a central place for research and practice in the field. Henri Holec notes that Yves Châlon, the founder of CRAPEL, is considered by many to be the father of autonomy in language learning. Henri Holec, the successor of Yves Châlon at CRAPEL remains a prominent figure within the field of autonomy today. The other names include Philip Riley and Caroline Stanchina of CRAPEL who were the participants at the seminar on self-directed learning and autonomy at the University of Cambridge in December 1976. Holec’s (1981) project report to the Council of Europe is a key early document on autonomy in language learning. The journal Mélanges Pédagogiques, published at CRAPEL, has also
played an important role in the dissemination of research on autonomy from 1970 to the present day.

Chene (1983)\textsuperscript{7}, a Canadian researcher addressed the concept of autonomy. She equated autonomous learning with self-directed learning. She distinguished between two meanings of autonomy: (a) psychological and (b) methodological. This assumes that the learner is either autonomous or aims at achieving autonomy through training. Chene provides the following perspective:

> Autonomy means that one can and does set one's own rules, and can choose for oneself the norms one will respect. In other words, autonomy refers to one's ability to choose what has value, that is to say, to make choices in harmony with self-realization.

Autonomy, as defined above, assumes that one will take personal responsibility, because one is independent. Autonomy is often associated with independence of thought, individualized decision-making, and critical intelligence.

5. **Autodidaxy Learning**

Candy (1991)\textsuperscript{8}, an Australian adult educator, suggests that continuous learning is a process in which adults manifest personality attributes of personal
autonomy in self-managing learning efforts. She urges that self-direction be differentiated as a goal for learner control of decision-making from an educational method in which teachers use processes for promoting self-direction. Candy proposes autodidaxy as a term for referring to self-instruction, which takes place outside of formal institutional settings.

Candy anticipates a self-directed learner to be methodical, disciplined, logical, analytical, reflective, self-aware, curious, open, motivated, interpersonally competent, persistent, responsible, creative, confident with positive self-concept, independent and self-sufficient. In addition to this, the learner should have developed information seeking, learning processes and retrieval skills along with the knowledge about the development and use of criteria for evaluating. The characteristics features enlisted by Candy make one believe that the autonomous learner appears to be a particular kind of person, rather than a person who possesses skills or abilities that can be acquired.

6. Open learning

Individualized study is often associated with external degree, open learning, or non-traditional programmes where most learning takes place outside formal classrooms. One of the most widely known is England's Open University, started in 1969, and emulated now in many countries including India eg. Indira Gandhi National Open University and Baba Saheb Ambedkar Open
University, Gujarat and many others. Currently, the development of distance education mode which exploits computer-assisted learning has necessitated new research on and understanding of how technology can enhance self-directed learning.

7. Adult learning

There may be as many unique definitions of adult learning as there are writers of the term. ‘Adult’ is a term that is usually taken as a reference to a person who has reached some definite level of maturity or responsibility for taking care of himself/herself and/or others. A related concept, adult education, usually refers to some relationship between this adult and some learning specialist or resource in an attempt to learn something new. Learning is generally accepted as the acquisition of knowledge, attitudes, and skills, usually resulting in some individual behavioral change. Thus, adult learning refers to the process of information acquisition during adulthood made by individuals depending on needs, interests, learning skills, and resource availability. However, all this adult learning is based on a learning contract.

8. Learning contracts

A learning contract is just what the name implies. It is a contract between a teacher and a student. A student identifies a learning objectives, specifies the
procedures for achieving the objective, finds appropriate resources, and determines how he/she will know when he/she has achieved his/her objectives.

Used as a teaching strategy and an assessment tool, learning contract is an offshoot of self-directed learning. Essentially, a learning contract is a written plan that describes what an individual will learn as a result of some specified learning activity. It defines the responsibilities of each party in terms of planning and learning strategies. Learning contract has a room for the active student participation from start to finish. In other words, in a learning contract the objective of learning become a student’s personal goals and s/he begins to take responsibility and control over their learning.

A learning contract is generally made of five major elements:

1. Learning objectives ie the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values to be acquired by the learner
2. Learning resources and strategies ie how these objectives are to be accomplished by the learner
3. The target date(s) for completion ie timeline
4. Evidence of accomplishment ie. to prove that learner has achieved the defined goal
5. Criteria and means for validating evidence how this evidence will be judged or validated

Learning contracts provide flexibility for teachers to meet the individual needs of students. They allow students to work at different levels according to their own knowledge. Students are not forced to do unnecessary tasks, but rather negotiate their work on what they need to learn. This in turn, provides them with motivation to reach a goal instead of feeling that they are doing needless work or learning things that they already know.

**History of Self-directed Learning (SDL)**

Serious thinking about self-directed learning took place some 150 years ago. For example, *Craik’s Pursuit of Knowledge Under Difficulties* (1840) describes the self-directed learning behaviours of many people. Through a variety of examples Craik demonstrated

(a) the practicability of self-directed learning

(b) the most effective methods for self-instruction
Moreover, he asserts that success or failure in an act of learning depends more upon the learner than upon any set of circumstances in which the learner may be placed.

Another early author was Hosmer\textsuperscript{10}, whose 1847 work entitled “Self-Education” makes a distinction between what he referred to as self-initiated learning acts and other educational forms. In mid-19\textsuperscript{th} century, we find Smiles (1859)\textsuperscript{11} of Great Britain making an effort to map self-directed learning for us. Smiles published a book entitled “Self-Help”, which highly praised the value of personal development. However, self-directed learning has gradually emerged as a major research area in the last four or five decades. More so, from the late 1960s and early 1970s..

Actually, self-directed learning has a long and rich history. Kulich (1970)\textsuperscript{12} noted that prior to the evolution of formal schools, self-education was the primary means individuals had of dealing with the changes going on about them. Self-education, for example, has been an important tool in the lives of
scholars throughout the history of Western civilization. Socrates and Aristotle, (Tough, 1967) are good examples of philosophers who prospered more through Self-education.

Long (1976) noted that a spirit of self-directedness was prevalent in the learning of colonial American adults, and cited many self-improvement societies, the instructional content in newspapers, and an expanding subscription library system as evidence of all this. Long (1983) also points to such people as Benjamin Franklin, Cotton Mather, Abigail Adams, Colden Cadwallader, and Eliza Pinckney as quintessential adult learners. In the USA, Benjamin Franklin was an important example of a self-directed learner. Some consider him to be the "patron saint" of adult education in the United States. He was involved in discussion clubs, library activities, and helping others with learning efforts. Franklin's numerous contributions are, to a great extent, a result of various self-education efforts.

The history of the Unites States clearly reflects the presence of self-direction. According to Long (1976), social conditions in Colonial America combined with a lack of formal educational institutions led many persons to learn on their own. Self-directed learners in Colonial America had a wide range of
learning resources from which to choose. With its heavy reliance on the "oral tradition," their learning was supplemented by the use of letters, diaries, and written records of the times and this was passed on orally to others. Personal libraries were common among the rich and the famous who could afford a collection of books. Almanacs offered the self-directed learner in Colonial America a plethora of information, much as they do today. Newspapers helped mobilize political activities leading to the Revolution. Magazines also proved to be a valuable resource for the self-directed learner in Colonial America.

Fundamental to contemporary studies of self-directed learning was the pioneering work of Houle (1961). Houle used an interview technique with several adult learners to develop a motivational typology of learning styles. He discovered that generally people were either goal oriented (had some specific goal or objective which served as the stimulus for learning), activity oriented (being with others in the pursuit of learning as the primary motivating factor), or learning oriented (enjoyment of learning for its own sake as the stimulating factor).

People, according to Houle, that fall in the third category resemble the self-directed learners. However, people of all the three categories can benefit
through self-directed learning. The first attempt to understand better learning-oriented individuals in the early 1970s was made by Tough, a Canadian researcher and one of Houle's doctoral students. He based his work on the notion that people accomplish considerable learning without assistance by teachers (Tough, 1967)\textsuperscript{18}. This research culminated in 1971 with his seminal work on adults' learning projects. The work stimulated other related research and substantiated by many researchers at various places. One common and important finding was to learn that the learner can and needs control of personal learning which requires self-planning on the part of the learner.

Knowles puts forward three immediate reasons for self-directed learning. First he argues that there is convincing evidence that people who take the initiative in learning (proactive learners) learn more things, and learn better, than the people who sit at the feet of teachers passively waiting to be taught (reactive learners). 'They enter into learning more purposefully and with greater motivation. They also tend to retain and make use of what they learn better and longer than do the reactive learners.' (Knowles 1975, 14)\textsuperscript{19}

A second immediate reason is that self-directed learning is more in tune with our natural processes of psychological development. 'An essential aspect of
maturing is developing the ability to take increasing responsibility for our own lives - to become increasingly self-directed' (Knowles 1975, 15)\(^\text{20}\).

A third immediate reason is that many of the new developments in education put a heavy responsibility on the learners requiring them to take a good deal of initiative in their own learning. 'Students entering into these programmes without having learned the skills of self-directed inquiry will experience anxiety, frustration, and often failure and so will their teachers (Knowles 1975, 15)\(^\text{21}\).

He even talks about various skills required for a learner to become involved in a self-directed learning project.

1. The ability to develop and be in touch with curiosities. Perhaps another way of describing this skill would be "the ability to engage in divergent thinking." Interestingly, intellectual curiosity is also a great motivating factor in learning and research.

2. The ability to formulate questions, based on personal curiosities, that are answerable through inquiry (in contrast to questions that are answerable by authority or faith).

3. The ability to perceive oneself objectively and accept feedback from others about personal performance nondefensively.
4. The ability to diagnose one’s own learning needs in light of models of competence required for performing life roles.

5. The ability to identify human, material, and experiential resources for accomplishing various kinds of learning objectives.

6. The ability to identify data required to answer various kinds of questions.

7. The ability to locate the most relevant and reliable sources of any required or acquired data.

8. The ability to select and use the most efficient means for collecting any required data from various sources.

9. The ability to organize, analyze, and evaluate the data so as to get valid answers to questions.

10. The ability to design a plan of strategies for making use of appropriate learning resources in answering questions or meeting learning needs.

11. The ability to carry out a learning plan systematically and sequentially. This skill is the beginning of the ability to engage in convergent thinking.

12. The ability to collect evidence of the accomplishment of learning objectives and have it validated through subsequent performance.

A conscious and cautious observation at the learning that takes place outside of the formal classroom would lead one to believe that we are living in a self-directed learning society. This belief would be strengthened by Tough's
(1979)\textsuperscript{22} seminal research on learning projects, which shows that self-directed learning activities are fairly consistent across populations and even societies irrespective of such variables as location, amount of education, age, economic status, and occupational history.

A different approach to examining the self-directed phenomenon was initiated by Gibbons (1980)\textsuperscript{23}. Utilizing the biographies of twenty high achievers who rose to the top of their fields without formal training, the researchers determined that self-directed characteristics such as creativity and self-confidence were common among the subjects. Gibbons identified five common characteristics of these people:

1. They possessed a much greater diversity of skills than are generally found in formal schooling.
2. Their expertise grew out of extra-curricular activities and school played a minimal or negative role.
3. They focused on their area of expertise rather than developing less in-depth knowledge in a range of areas;
4. They embraced an active, experiential approach to learning; and
5. They pursued their learning in spite of great odds, failure and public disapproval.
Similarly, Spear and Mocker's (1984)\textsuperscript{24} work on organizing circumstances showed how important it is to understand a learner's environmental circumstances in promoting self-directed learning.

In 1987, Long and his colleagues established an annual International Symposium on Self-directed Learning, the establishment of which has spawned many publications, research projects, and theory building efforts by researchers throughout the world.

Candy (1988)\textsuperscript{25} has offered further support for a distinction between concepts. In a critical analysis of the term "self-direction" through a review of literature and synthesis of research findings, Candy concluded that self-direction has been used

(i) as a personal quality or attribute (personal autonomy)

(ii) as the independent pursuit of learning outside formal instructional settings (autodidaxy)

(iii) as a way of organizing instruction (learner-control)” (p. 1033-A).

In 1988, Caffarella and O’Donnell\textsuperscript{26} introduced five categories of self-direction in learning. The first was on the nature of the philosophical grounding for the
process (conceptual perspective of the process). The second was on the verification studies (descriptive investigations of learning process) followed by the nature of the method of self-directed learning. The nature of the individual learner was the fourth category and the final category was policy questions. Caffarella (1993)\textsuperscript{27} has commented that self-directed learning has contributed to our understanding of learning by identifying an important form of adult learning, thus providing insights into the process of learning, which is challenging to define and debate, especially in terms of the salient characteristics of adult learners and expanding the thinking about learning in formal settings. She further lamented that self-directed learning does not necessarily mean solitary learning or learning in isolation. Rather, adults in this type of learning seek assistance in the form of human and material resources like friends, colleagues, experts in the content areas, books, magazines, journals and other audio-visual materials.

Merriam and Caffarella in 1999\textsuperscript{28} looked at self-directed learning taking into account three broad categories: goals of self-directed learning, self as a process or form of study, and self as a personal attribute of the learner.
In sum, the earlier research which has been considered to be less interactive and found to be guided by linear model approaches that move from diagnosing needs to identifying resources and instructional formats to evaluation outcomes. The previous studies mainly focused on the three important aspects of adult learning: the goals, the process and the learner himself/herself. The work of Merriam and Caffarella, which led to the adult learners and the adult educators to realize that the development of the learners’ capacity to be self-directed, fostering of the transformational learning and also the promotion of emancipatory learning and social actions (social context) is an outcome that each one of us could be happy about. From a teacher-centered approach in pedagogy in formal education, the dimension of adult learning moves into a new paradigm of learner-centered approach altogether.

The adult learners have more control and authority of their own learning and are, therefore, responsible for all their individual learning. Self-directed learning becomes an important aspect in the adult lifelong learning. They are capable of planning their own learning activities, and can take full control of their personal learning as well as in the choice of the resources for their various learning activities. Simply put, the adults have more power in finding their own path in the journey of continuous learning throughout their life and leaving a trail for others to follow.
Description of various models explaining self-directed learning process

(i) Garrison’s Model of Dimensions in Self-Directed Learning

![Diagram](source: Garrison, 1997, p. 22)

Garrison takes self-directed learning to be a personal attribute as well as a learning process. His theoretical model shown above demands collaboration of self-management and self-monitoring which anticipates the motivation as the starting point. In self-management, a person is expected to set his/her goal first, have the knowledge of resources s/he would utilize and any other external support for learning. In self-management learners takes the control of the learning context to reach his/her learning objectives. He further explains that learner control does not mean independence, but rather collaboration with
other people within the context. Thus, his focus is more on SDL as a learning process. Self-monitoring refers to the ability of learners to monitor both their cognitive and metacognitive processes. Students have the ability to employ their own learning strategies and can also plan and modify the same as per their individual goals. A learner self-monitors through external feedback combining it with his/her own self-reflection and thus confirms learning. Motivation according to Garrison plays a vital role in the initiation and maintenance of effort toward learning and the achievement of goals. Motivation in this model shows two dimensions ie. entering (or initial) motivation and task motivation. The first one makes leaner a participant in the learning process whereas the latter persists the learner to continue with the same. Thus, self-directed learning, as per this Three-Dimensional Model, can be accomplished by motivation, self-management and self-monitoring.
Brockett and Hiemstra’s Personal Responsibility Orientation Model

Brockett and Hiemstra (1991) created a Personal Responsibility Orientation (PRO) Model in self-directed learning. This model depicts personal responsibility in the teaching-learning process and in one’s own thoughts and actions. These researchers state that people have control over their response to a situation even if they do not have control over the actual circumstances. They view personal responsibility as the cornerstone of self-directed learning. Learners have choices about the directions they pursue as learners. With the exercise choice of direction on their part comes the responsibility that flows from it. In a way, choice and responsibility go hand in hand as do authority.
and responsibility. When a person chooses something, he should be ready to accept the consequences of his/her thoughts and actions. The PRO model shows self-directed learning and learner self-direction as two dimensions. Personal responsibility links the external and internal characteristics. These researchers, thus, emphasize that individuals do not learn in isolation, for social aspects of learning do have an important part to play in it.

Brockett and Hiemstra view self-directed learning as an instructional process centering around such activities as assessing needs, securing learning resources, implementing learning activities, and evaluating learning. Hiemstra and Sisco (1990) refer to this as ‘individualizing instruction’, a process focusing on characteristics of the teaching-learning transaction. In essence, this aspect of self-direction centers on those factors external to the individual. In other words, learner self-direction refers to those individual characteristics that lead to taking primary responsibility for personal learning.

Consequently, self-direction in learning is a term that recognizes both external factors facilitating a learner in taking primary responsibility, and internal factors that predispose an adult accepting responsibility for learning-related thoughts and actions. At the same time, there is a strong connection between self-directed learning and learner self-direction. Thus, PRO model marries off the connection between external forces and internal forces through personal
responsibility with all combined to form self-direction in learning to create a harmonious blend of the factors impinging upon self-directed learning.

The PRO model's final component is represented by a circle that encompasses all other elements. While the individual's personality characteristics and the teaching and learning process are the starting points for understanding self-direction, the social context provides an arena wherein the learning activity or results are created. To fully understand self-directed learning activity, the interface existing between individual learners, any facilitator or learning resource, and appropriate social dimensions must be recognized. Thus, Brockett and Hiemstra recommend that self-direction in learning be used as an umbrella definition recognizing those external factors facilitating adults taking primary responsibility for learning and those internal factors or personality characteristics that incline one toward accepting such responsibility.

(iii) Candy’s Learner-Control and Autodidaxy as “Laminated” Domain

Figure 3 Source: Candy, P.C. (1991) p. 18
Candy proposed a model of two interacting domains of self-directed learning, with, one dimension of self-directed learning being the amount of control within an institutional setting, and the other in the continuum being, the teacher who exercises total control over what is to be studied, how the content is to be presented, and what outcomes are expected. The opposite end of this continuum represents a state in which the learner has total control over the learning experience.

The second aspect of self-directed learning is learner control in situations outside of the formal institutional setting or “autodidaxy”. In this dimension, the learner makes the decisions about learning, including what was to be learned, how learning activities would occur, when learning would take place, where learning activities would be conducted, and how learning outcomes would be evaluated. The continuum of autodidactic domain represents the amount of assistance the learner has in making decisions about the learning experience, if any (Candy, 1991)\textsuperscript{33}. Candy contends that

Self-direction actually embraces dimensions of process and product, and that it refers to four distinct (but related) phenomena: ‘self-direction’ as a personal attribute (personal autonomy); ‘self-
direction’ as the willingness and capacity to conduct one’s own education (self-management); ‘self-direction’ as a mode of organizing instruction in formal settings (learner-control); and ‘self-direction’ as the individual, noninstructional pursuit of learning opportunities in the ‘natural societal setting’ (autodidaxy) (pp. 22-23).

In Candy’s model, the continuums are not actually linear in nature. Rather, the two dimensions interact in a “laminated or layered” fashion. Figure 3 illustrates the relationship between institutional control of learning and autodidaxy. Both ownership and control are vested in the learner from the outset, and the only question is the amount and type of assistance obtained.

Self-directed learning, on the left of the model, refers to the actual teaching and learning transactions, or what we refer to as those factors external to the adult learner. Learner self-direction, on the right, refers to the personal orientation of individuals engaged in a learning process. This involves a learner's personality characteristics, or the factors internal to the individual, such as self-concept.

In terms of learning, it is an ability or willingness of individuals to take control that determines any potential for self-direction. This means that learners have choices about the directions they pursue. Along with this goes responsibility for accepting any consequences of learner’s thoughts and actions.
(iv) **The Staged Self-Directed Learning Model (SSDL)**

Inspired by the Situational Leadership model of Hersey and Blanchard, the Staged Self-directed learning Model clearly claims that teachers can help or hinder the self-directed development of the student. The teacher should teach as per the capacity of the students. In other words, students differ a great deal in terms of abilities to be self-directed; teachers must adapt their methods in response. Problems occur when there is a mismatch between teacher’s style and learner’s capacity. SSDL model is helpful in understating the concept. To explain the things he proposes a model wherein he discusses the role of a teacher and methods to help the learner advance in his/her studies. The teacher's purpose is to match the learner's stage of self-direction and prepare the learner to advance to higher stages.

**The Staged Self-Directed Learning Model**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage 1</th>
<th>Stage 2</th>
<th>Stage 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Student</strong></td>
<td>Dependent</td>
<td>Interested</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teacher</strong></td>
<td>Authority, Coach</td>
<td>Motivator, guide</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Examples</strong></td>
<td>Coaching with immediate feedback. Drill. Informational lecture. Overcoming deficiencies and resistance.</td>
<td>Inspiring lecture plus guided discussion. Goal-setting and learning strategies.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Good teaching, according to Grow, matches the learner's stage of self-direction and helps the learner advance toward greater self-direction. Specific methods can be thought of for teaching students at each stage, although many different teaching styles are good when appropriately applied. Talking about readiness he states that it is a combination of ability and motivation – ranges from "not able" and "not willing or motivated" (in the specific task at hand), to "able and willing" in the task at hand. Readiness is situational; it may even be task specific. A student, for example, may be good at speaking, yet "able but unmotivated" to complete the necessary homework. A good teacher chooses a mix of directiveness and personal interaction that accomplishes two things.

The aim of education is make a student independent, lifelong self-directed learners. Instead, it sometimes creates dependent learners. Grow argues quite convincingly in this model that the ability to be self-directed is situational: one may be self-directed in one subject but, at the same time, be a dependent.
learner in another. Thus, he means that there is nothing wrong with being a dependent learner, or one who needs to be taught. Self-direction can be learned and it can be taught. Thus, there is a greater responsibility on the part of a teacher even in Self-directed learning (Holec).

A good teacher is not one who "pours it on" or the one who leads and motivates students. A good teacher is one who encourages students to develop on their own, or the one who engages the most advanced students with deep, open-ended problems. Similarly, what is "good teaching" for one student in one stage of development may not be "good teaching" for another student or even for the same student at a different stage of development. Good teaching does two things. It matches the student's stage of self-direction, and it empowers the student to progress toward greater self-direction. Good teaching is situational, yet it promotes the long-term development of the student.
**The process of Self-Directed Learning**

Different researchers vary a great deal in their description of the process of SDL. This is impressively done by Merriam and Caffarella (1991) who have described the process of SDL by referring to the work of Tough, Knowles, and Spear and Mocker and same is given below:

Tough assumed that adults have a wide range of abilities for planning and guiding their own learning activities. Tough’s list of thirteen steps represents key decision-making point about choosing what, where, and how to learn:

1. Deciding what detailed knowledge and skill to learn
2. Deciding the specific activities, methods, resources, equipment etc for learning
3. Deciding where to learn
4. Setting specific deadlines or intermediate targets
5. Deciding when to begin a learning episode
6. Deciding the place at which to proceed during a learning episode
7. Estimating the current level of one’s knowledge and skill or one’s progress in gaining the desired knowledge and skill
8. Detecting any factor that has been hindering learning or discovering inefficiency aspect of the current procedures
9. Obtaining the desired resources or equipment or reaching the desired place or resource

10. Preparing or adapting a room for learning or arranging certain other physical conditions in preparation for learning

11. Saving or obtaining the money necessary for the use of certain human or non-human resources

12. Finding time for the learning

13. Taking steps to increase the motivation for certain learning episodes

Knowles stated that SDL is grounded in the conceptualization of andragogy. He pointed a somewhat similar set of steps. His five-step model of self-directed learning consists of:

1. Diagnosing learning needs

2. Formulating learning goals

3. Identifying human and material resources for learning

4. Choosing and implementing appropriate learning strategy

5. Evaluation learning outcome

Spear and Mocker offered the first alternative description of process to explain how learners organize their own learning efforts. They explained the process as follows:
1. The triggering event for a learning project stems from a change in life circumstances

2. The changed circumstance provides an opportunity for learning

3. The structure, method, resources, and condition for learning are directed by the circumstances

4. Learning sequences progress as the circumstances created in one episode become the circumstances for the next logical step

**Facilitating self-directed learning**

Writing on "andragogy," 36 the art and science of helping adults learn, Knowles has suggested following ways to facilitate self-directed learning:

1. Provide a physical climate showing that the learner is accepted, respected and supported.

2. Take attention on self-diagnosis of needs for learning.

3. Involve the learner in planning a personal program.

4. The tutor acts as a resource person, a procedural specialist, and a co-inquirer, and does not try to make the other person learn.

5. The tutor helps the learner in a process of self-evaluation.

6. Lays great emphasis on techniques that tap the experience of adult learners.
Lowry (2006)\textsuperscript{37} makes a summary of the points raised by many researchers and authors regarding on how adult educators can best facilitate self-directed learning. For example;

1. Help the learner recognize the initiating point for a learning lesson and perceive relevant modes of examination and reporting.

2. Inspire adult learners to view knowledge and truth as contextual, to see value frameworks as cultural constructs, and to appreciate that they can act on their world individually or collectively to transform it.

3. Create a partnership with the learner to set goals, strategies, and evaluation criteria by using negotiation a learning contract.

4. Be facilitators of the learning experience rather than teachers.

5. Help learners reach the needs assessment techniques necessary to discover what objectives they should set.

6. Encourage learner to set objectives that can be met in several ways and offer a variety of options for evidence of successful performance.

**Instruments/Measurement Tools Available for the Measuring Dimensions of Self-directed Learning**

A review of the literature reveals the availability of multiple instruments for measuring various dimensions of self-directed learning. However, there are
two leading instruments that measure the ability and readiness for self-directed learning: The Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale (Guglielmino, 1977) and the Oddi Continuing Learning Inventory (Oddi, 1984). Both of which have played a pivotal role in making self-direction one of the most extensively researched areas in adult education during the decade of the 1980s.

**The Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale**

Designed to measure the complex of attitudes, skills, and characteristics that comprise an individual’s current level of readiness to manage his or her own learning and used in numerous research studies, the *Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale (SDLRS)* or *Learning Preference Assessment, (LPA)* is a self-report questionnaire with Likert-type items developed by Dr. Lucy M. Guglielmino in 1977. It is a 58-item Likert scale that produces one final score of self-directed readiness and has a reliability coefficient of .87 (Guglielmino, 1977). A factor analysis of the instrument by Guglielmino yielded the following eight factors:

1. love of learning;
2. self-concept as an effective, independent learner
3. tolerance of risk, ambiguity, complexity in learning
4. creativity
5. view of learning as a lifelong, beneficial process;
6. initiative in learning
7. self-understanding
8. acceptance of responsibility for one’s own learning

Although the SDLRS has been found to be both valid and reliable by several researchers (Brockett, 1985; Brookfield, 1984; Finestone, 1984; Long & Agyekum, 1983), the SDLRS is not without its criticism. Most of the criticism seems to revolve around the validity of the instrument. Field (1989, 1990), the most ardent critic of the instrument, claimed that the Delphi technique used to create the scale was not appropriate for determining potential items for an instrument. He emphasized that the Delphi technique should not be used to generate items. Field noted, “Given the conceptual confusion surrounding ‘self-directed learning’ Guglielmino’s use of the Delphi technique to generate items may do no more than merely transfer this confusion into a set of items” (p. 129). Thus, even though the scale has been widely used, additional validation is needed.

**Oddi Continuing Learning Inventory**

As a way of providing an alternative measure of self-direction in learning, Oddi (1984, 1985) developed the Oddi Continuing Learning Inventory
(OCLI). Using a theoretical framework based on personality characteristics of individuals whose learning behavior is characterized by initiative and persistence in learning over time through a variety of modes, Oddi identified three clusters that she hypothesized to be essential personality dimensions of self-directed continuing learners. These dimensions include:

1. *Proactive Drive versus Reactive Drive* – "ability to initiate and persist in learning without immediate or obvious external reinforcement"

2. *Cognitive Openness versus Defensiveness* – "openness to new ideas and activities, ability to adapt to change, and tolerance of ambiguity" as opposed to "rigidity, fear of failure, and avoidance of new ideas and activities"

3. *Commitment to Learning versus Apathy or Aversion to Learning* – while many individuals enjoy learning for its own sake, there are also individuals who have little interest in learning involvement. Those who fit the personality dimension of self-directed continuing learners generally fall into the former category.

From the validity-related findings, Oddi suggests that the scale demonstrates convergent validity, and supports the elements of proactive drive and commitment to learning as elements of self-directedness in learning. Based on her findings, Oddi concluded that when used in its entirety, the scale
demonstrates a satisfactory level of reliability and validity. However, she warns that the scale should be used with caution until further studies are undertaken. One can agree with this assessment, for to do otherwise would run the risk of promoting the same kind of controversy that has surrounded the use of the SDLRS.

Roles of Educators and Institutions in Self-directed Learning

The following list summarizes points made by several researchers (Ash 1985; Bauer 1985; Brockett and Hiemstra 1985; Brookfield 1985; Cross 1978; Hiemstra 1982, and Reisser 1973) regarding how adult educators can best facilitate self-directed learning:

- Help the learner identify the starting point for a learning project and discern relevant modes of examination and reporting.
- Encourage adult learners to view knowledge and truth as contextual, to see value frameworks as cultural constructs, and to appreciate that they can act on their world individually or collectively to transform it.
- Create a partnership with the learner by negotiating a learning contract for goals, strategies, and evaluation criteria.
- Be a manager of the learning experience rather than an information provider.
- Help learners acquire the needs assessment techniques necessary to discover what objectives they should set.
- Encourage the setting of objectives that can be met in several ways and offer a variety of options for evidence of successful performance.
- Provide examples of previously acceptable work.
- Make sure that learners are aware of the objectives, learning strategies, resources, and evaluation criteria once they are decided upon.
- Teach inquiry skills, decision making, personal development, and self-evaluation of work.
• Act as advocates for educationally underserved populations to facilitate their access to resources.
• Help match resources to the needs of learners.
• Help learners locate resources.
• Help learners develop positive attitudes and feelings of independence relative to learning.
• Recognize learner personality types and learning styles.
• Use techniques such as field experience and problem solving that take advantage of adults' rich experience base.
• Develop high-quality learning guides, including programmed learning kits.
• Encourage critical thinking skills by incorporating such activities as seminars.
• Create an atmosphere of openness and trust to promote better performance.
• Help protect learners against manipulation by promoting a code of ethics.
• Behave ethically, which includes not recommending a self-directed learning approach if it is not congruent with the learners' needs.

Emerging Trends and Issues in Self-Directed Learning

A number of trends are emerging from the research on self-directed learning. Confessore and Confessore's (1992) delphi study also obtained consensus views on several trends.

a) One trend is research on the feasibility of self-directed learning meeting some job-related training needs in industry (Ravid, 1987). For example, during the 1992 International Symposium, nine out of thirty-five concurrent sessions dealt with self-directed learning in the workplace.

b) Another trend is effort to understand better the role of technology in self-directed learning (Brockett and Hiemstra, 1991). In the 1992 International
Symposium, eight of thirty-five sessions dealt with self-directed learning and technology or distance education.

c) A third trend focuses on enhancing self-directed learning by understanding environmental factors better (Spear and Mocker, 1984)\textsuperscript{56}. For example, Hiemstra (1991)\textsuperscript{57} and his colleagues describe various physical, social, and psychological aspects of the learning environment that affect the learning.

The field of SDL has a rich history and a vibrant future as the world’s demographics, technology and global economics require more self-directed learning in both formal educational settings, vocational training and business training and development as well as personal and social learning projects.

**Self-Assessment**

Self-assessment is an excellent way to make visible different styles of thinking and different attitudes on controversial topics...without embarrassing anyone individually. Written responses are announced ahead of time as private. Their purpose is to promote internal reflection, to bring paradigms, biases, or learning barriers to the surface. (Angelo and Cross\textsuperscript{45}, 1993: 296).

One way of developing responsibility for one’s own learning or becoming a successful learner is to be honest in one’s own real estimation of one’s own performance. The most common way of doing this is of course to let someone
give an individual feedback on his/her performance. This is, however, usually
done through assessment, and most commonly through written examination.
Another is to be fair in making one’s own Self-assessment.

However, if we return to the issues of students developing responsibility for
their own learning and to the way of becoming aware of the quality of a
performance, one way to promote this is self-assessment. Self-assessment, like
Self-directed learning, subsumes personal responsibility. If one is assessing
oneself, s/he has to take responsibility for it by being clear about why s/he
doing what s/he doing and how. S/he is answerable to himself/herself. Also, if
a person were to note how the process of learning works for himself/herself,
s/he has to think about how s/he learns, and how s/he does not learn, which of
course can have an impact on how s/he will or should try to learn in the future.

Self-assessment has gained much attention in recent years owing to emphasis
being laid on learner independence and learner autonomy. Students need to
know what their abilities are, how much progress they are making and what
they can (or cannot yet) do with the skills they have acquired. Without such
knowledge, it would not be easy for them to learn efficiently. From an
educational viewpoint, knowing to what extent students can appraise their own
performance is also important. If they can do it accurately enough, they do not have to depend completely on the opinions of teachers, and at the same time, they can make teachers aware of their individual needs.

John Upshur\textsuperscript{46} (1975, cited in Heilenman, 1990) was one of the first who provided a rationale for the use of self-assessment in the measurement of the second language abilities. He pointed out that learners have access to the entire gamut of their success and failure in the use of the second language, whereas any test of actual language use can sample only a small proportion of that ability. Since then, there has been a growing interest in the use of self-assessment in second language competencies. Moreover, students’ role should not be restricted to the study of content chosen by others, through techniques selected by others. It is important for a learner to prepare for autonomy to be able to make some kind of judgment about accuracy of his performance.

Freedom implies the taking of responsibility. Right to learn that such freedom affords implies a responsibility for honest self-assessment, honest self-appraisal. Self-assessment emphasizes learning, the process rather than the results, or the product; it is seen, as one of the pillars of learner autonomy. One of the fundamental elements of self-directed language learning is the
opportunity given to learners to assess their own progress and thus help them
to focus on their own learning.

Thus, in line with theories of self-directed learning and learner autonomy, self
assessment is assuming a larger role in language teaching nowadays. A good
language learner always monitors his/her own oral expression and the speech
of others. That is, s/he is constantly attending to how well his/her oral
expression is being received and whether his/her performance meets the
standards set for the purpose. Erwin\(^\text{47}\) (1991) defines assessment as “the
process of defining, analyzing, interpreting, and using information to increase
students’ learning and development”. Dikel\(^\text{48}\) (2005) also argues that self-
assessment is a process by which the student learns about himself, what s/he
likes, what s/he does not like, and how he tends to react to certain situations.

**Goals and Justifications for Self-assessment**

In view of Mats Oscarsson\(^\text{49}\) (1984), a noted scholar in the field of self-
assessment, self-assessment research in language education has two main goals:
1. The investigation of possible ways of realizing the goal of learner participation in matters of assessment and evaluation

2. The investigation of the degree to which self-assessment instruments and procedures yield relevant and dependable results

Oscarsson\(^{50}\) (1989) gives six different reasons why self-assessment can be beneficial to language learning. They are:

1) **Promotion of learning**: “Self-rating requires the student to exercise a variety of learning strategies and higher order thinking skills that not only provide feedback to the student but also provide direction for future learning” (Chamot\(^{51}\) & O’Malley, 1994). Assessment leading towards evaluation is an important educational objective in its own right; training learners in this is beneficial to learning. (Dickinson\(^{52}\), 1987)

2) **Raised level of awareness**: “Students need to know what their abilities are, how much progress they are making and what they can (or cannot yet) do with the skills they have acquired” (Blanche\(^{53}\), 1988: 75)
3) **Improved goal orientation**: “Engaging the learner actively in the evaluation of learning effects will probably lead to greater interest in techniques for continuous assessment, as opposed … ‘end-of-unit’ assessment” (Oscarsson, 1978)

4) **Expansion of range of assessment**: If learners can appraise their own performance accurately enough, “they do not have to depend entirely on the opinion of teachers and at the same time they can make teachers aware of their individual learning needs” (Blanche, 1988)

5) **Shared assessment burden**: Self-assessment is one way of alleviating the assessment burden on the teacher (Dickinson, 1987). “Combining self-assessment with teacher assessment means that the latter can become more effective” (Harris, 1997). Another variant of this is peer-assessment which our teachers used with us in our primary classes in dictation tests.

6) **Beneficial post course effects**: Self-assessment is a necessary part of self-direction (Dickinson, 1987). Much of the self-assessment debate focuses on its feasibility and practicability for self-directed individuals, often in self-access study situations. Harris also sees it as appropriate in test-driven
secondary and tertiary education, claiming that self-assessment can help learners in such environments to become more active, to locate their own strengths and weaknesses and to realize that they have the ultimate responsibility for learning. By encouraging individual reflection, “self-assessment can begin to make students see their learning in personal terms [and] can help learners get better marks” (Harris, 1997).

In this way, the self-assessment procedure involves students in making judgments about their own learning, particularly about their achievements and learning outcomes. Many researchers and practitioners, as stated above, deem self-assessment as a vital part of learner autonomy and argue that teachers should provide the opportunity for students to assess their language level to help them focus on their own learning. In a way, without learner self-evaluation and self-assessment there can be no real self directed learning.

Blue (1994) identifies benefits such as encouraging more efforts, boosting self-confidence and facilitating awareness of the distinction between competence and performance as well as self-consciousness of learning strengths and weaknesses.
In addition, self-assessment is considered necessary for effective lifelong learning (Boud, 1995, 2000). There is a common understanding that university education should equip students with the skills and attitudes required throughout their lives. Boud (2000) argues,

Assessment involves identifying appropriate standards and criteria and making judgments about quality. This is as necessary to lifelong learning as it is to any formal educational experience. (p. 151).

Given as such, when asked to assess their own language performance and progress in the classroom, students will identify appropriate standards for the task in hand and seek forms of feedback from the environment (including peers, teachers, written or oral sources), and gradually develop a critical attitude toward their learning, which will in the long run prepare them for their future roles in the workplace.

Self-assessment can be used for a variety of purposes, including appropriate placement, diagnosis and feedback to the learner, program evaluation, assessment of attitudes and sociopsychological differences, determination of course grade, and so forth (Henning, 1987). Due to the inherent intricacy in
providing a comprehensive definition of self assessment, a number of researchers (Bachman, 2000; Haughton & Dickinson, 1988; Oscarson, 1989) have attempted to define the term by identifying two types of self-assessment according to their purpose:

(1) performance-oriented self-assessment

(2) development-oriented self-assessment

A major distinction between performance-oriented self-assessment and development-oriented self-assessment is that the former typically samples the test takers’ performance at one particular point in time, whereas the latter assesses the participants for an extended period in order to detect changes and patterns of development over time. The following will discuss the two types of self-assessment and their implementation guidelines.

**Performance-oriented Self-assessment**

Performance-oriented assessment measures the outcomes related to selection, certification, placement, achievement, diagnosis, etc.
Researchers have investigated whether self-assessment instruments accurately sample the learners’ language ability at one particular point in time. Although there remains serious concern about learners’ objectivity and capacity to view their achievements, the use of self-assessment for the purpose of the performance-oriented self-assessment has various advantages. First, it eliminates concerns with cheating and security issues (LeBlanc & Painchaud, 1985). Second, it is cost and time efficient (Strong-Klause, 2000). These advantages are often attractive enough to induce test administrators to implement self-assessment into their language programs. However, these test administrators need to be aware that self-reporting is affected by many factors including the wording of the questions, the assessed language skills, the proficiency level of the students, the cultural backgrounds of the students, and so on. Most importantly, self-assessment is severely influenced when there is a perceived advantage to a higher rating. Many test administrators are hesitant to use it in situations where the consequences of the self-assessment seriously affect the test takers’ present circumstances. The students’ self-ratings can be greatly affected by subjective errors; the results must, therefore, be interpreted with caution when used for the purpose of placement, certification, diagnosis, and admission.
**Development-oriented Self-assessment**

Development-oriented assessment measures the process of learning (usually in a classroom environment) in which self-managed activities are incorporated. It is used as an observation of “the participants for an extended period in order to detect changes and patterns of development over time” (Dornyei\textsuperscript{64}, 2001). This type of assessment began to receive attention as the result of an increasing interest in the learner-centered approach. In a learner-centered curriculum, learners are encouraged not only to be test takers, but also to be active participants in the assessment process (Bachman\textsuperscript{65}, 2000; Dickinson, 1987). By incorporating self-assessment into classroom learning, students as well as teachers acknowledge assessment as a mutual responsibility, and not as the sole responsibility of the teacher (Oscarson\textsuperscript{66}, 1989).

Furthermore, a number of empirical studies indicate the presence of increased productivity and autonomy, higher motivation, less frustration, and higher retention rates among learners when development-oriented self-assessment is utilized (Dickinson, 1987; Ellis\textsuperscript{67}, 1994; Gardner & McIntyre\textsuperscript{68}, 1991; McNamara & Deane\textsuperscript{69}, 1995; O’Malley & Pierce\textsuperscript{70}, 1996; Oscarson, 1989; Pierce, Swain, & Hart\textsuperscript{71}, 1993; Rivers\textsuperscript{72}, 2001). Though, the findings of these studies make the implementation of self-assessment sound plausible, issues regarding the validity and reliability of the assessment need to be addressed.
Learners can determine their learning ability provided they have the standard to be compared with. Moreover, all human beings involved in the process of self-evaluation it is not an alien concept and the same implies that every human being has competence for self-assessment, though varying in degree. Simply they need to know what to do and how to do. To be able to assess their proficiency validly, learners need to know exactly what it is that they are trying to assess. Once the learners know this they would be able to give positive input. However, because of the complex process nature of the language learning process, what is being measured need to be clarified. Assessment of various language skills demands different set of assessment skills. The degree to which language learners are able to carry out valid self-assessments will depend on the nature of the skills being assessed and the relative accuracy with which learners can define and use the skills they are to assess.

The reliability of learners' judgement is subject to variables whose influence on the learner is difficult to establish. Factors, such as parental expectations, career aspirations, amount of exposure to foreign languages, age, past academic record and lack of training in self-assessment, affect the accuracy of self-estimates.
Although the issues of reliability and validity remain the primary concern for development-oriented self-assessment, many studies have focused on how the implementation of self-assessment in classroom enhances the students’ language learning. This approach not only promotes autonomy in student learning, it also helps the teachers measure the students’ progress in the course. Development-oriented self-assessment may best serve as a complementary instrument to traditional assessment presently; however, it may become a more viable part of the assessment process when more research has been conducted to investigate its validity and reliability.

Problems and Responses in Self-Assessment

Problems:

A number of problems in language pedagogy and evaluation have arisen with the concept of self-assessment as an evaluation tool. Some of these are mentioned as follows:

1. Doubts regarding the reliability and feasibility of learners assessing their own self-directed learning and carrying out individual needs analysis (Dickinson, 1987)

2. Doubts about the sincerity of the learners (Dickinson, 1987)
3. Doubts on the reliability and feasibility of self-assessment in formal education (Blue, 1988)

4. Reluctance of teachers to lose control of assessment (Blue, 1988)

5. Conflict of need for students to be in control of aspects of evaluation, and demands of external imperatives (Dickinson, 1978)

6. Mismatch between goals of learning as conceived by the learner and the educationalist (Blanche, 1988; Oscarsson, 1997)

7. Cultural factors need further investigation: many (adult) students did not share the same value systems with their instructors (Blanche, 1988)

8. Learners need training and practice in assessing their own performances, and pass through a number of stages of support (Oscarsson, 1997)

- dependent stage: full dependence on external assessment;
- co-operative stage: collaborative self- and external assessment;
- independent stage: full reliance on independent self-assessment;

9. Question of whether self-assessment is both formative and summative, or whether it should only be seen as a process-oriented, integrative, and ongoing (i.e. formative) activity (Oscarsson, 1997).
Responses

Responses to these problems

1) **Reliability**: There is evidence that learners can make satisfactorily accurate self-assessments (Oscarsson, 1978; Blanche, 1988; Blue, 1988) and that there is a fairly consistent overall agreement between self-assessment and external criteria (Oscarsson, 1978; Dickinson, 1987).

2) **Sincerity**: One reason put forward by teachers for not sharing responsibility for assessment might be that students will ‘cheat’ and produce unrealistic scores. Dickinson, however, points out that ‘cheating’ (a process in which a learner seeks to obtain personal advantage by unfair means (Dickinson, 1987) is not about learning but about demonstrating the results of learning to someone else, usually in learning situations which value scores and rank orders over actual success in learning. “Where the learner is concerned with real learning objectives, and where self-assessment is mainly used, cheating offers no advantages” (ibid).

3) **Self-assessment in formal education**: Work on peer assessment has shown that self-assessment has an important place in formal education. Blanche also
mentions that self-evaluation focuses attention on *communicative* competence levels in the classroom (Blanche, 1988).

4) **Teacher-control of assessment**: This raises the issue of teacher training as part of the preparation for student autonomy: “Relevant training of teachers may actually constitute a prerequisite for the effective realization of student-centered evaluation techniques” (Oscarsson, 1989).

5) **Mismatch of goals**: Learner training for self-assessment can help learners successfully identify their needs, which should not only enhance learning, but should also free the teacher to concentrate on developing learning materials and giving help in other parts of the learning process (Blue, 1988).

6) **Cultural factors**: Blue derives four nationality groupings for students, concluding that self-assessment is more difficult with multi-cultural groups (Blue, 1988).

7) **Learner training**: The adoption of autonomy as a goal of language learning has necessitated attention being given to learner training.
8) **Formative/summative nature**: Dickinson sees self-assessment used for formative self-monitoring purposes as “both possible and desirable” (Dickinson, 1987), and also considers it feasible for other purposes, including testing for placement and diagnostic testing. Oscarsson also sees self-assessment as enabling the learner “to assess his *total achievement at the end of a course or course unit*” (Oscarsson, 1978).

### Validity and reliability of Self-Assessment

With the increased attention to learner-centered curricula, needs analysis, and learner autonomy, the topic of self-assessment has become of particular interest in testing and evaluation. It is now being recognized that learners do have the ability to provide meaningful input into the assessment of their performance, and that this assessment can be valid. In fact, with regard to second and foreign language, research reveals an emerging pattern of consistent, overall high correlations between self-assessment results and ratings based on a variety of external criteria (Blanch 1988; Oscarson 1984, 1997, 1998; Coombe 1992). In spite of these results, however, issues concerning the validity and reliability of language self-assessment need to be addressed.
Whereas formal or standardized tests have already established “construct, predictive, and concurrent validity and reliability indices”, the question of the validity and reliability of learners' estimates remains moot. Because of the complex process nature of the language learning process, constructs of what is being measured need to be clarified. To be able to assess their behavior validly, learners need to know, in non-linguistic, simplified and practical terms, exactly what it is that they are trying to assess. Many language constructs, such as proficiency and communicative competence, are elusive and must be clearly and concisely operationalized and communicated to ensure the validation of assessment among learners. The criterion by which learners are to assess themselves may be opaque and thus add an additional threat to validity. Language learners in EFL contexts may find self-assessment particularly difficult if no comparisons to a native speaker are available to them. This difficulty can be overcome by playing tapes or videos. Wherein native speakers may be found speaking. They may be able to judge their own fluency and understanding fairly accurately, but may find it more difficult to assess their accuracy of speech and pronunciation.

An additional consideration of validity is whether different language skills are comparable for assessment. They probably are not, and learners must be made
aware of this. Linguistic analyses may require a different focus than communication does. Receptive skills may demand different attention than productive skills. The degree to which language learners are able to carry out valid self-assessments will depend on the nature of the skills being assessed and the relative accuracy with which learners can define and use, in concrete, behavioral terms, the skills they are to assess.

The reliability of learners' judgement is subject to variables whose influence on the learner is difficult to establish. Extraneous factors, such as parental expectations, career aspirations, amount of exposure to foreign languages, age, past academic record and lack of training in self-assessment, affect the accuracy of self-estimates and must, in some way, be accounted for. Furthermore, because reliability, like validity, depends on systematic analysis, the questions are raised as to whether short-term self-assessments lend themselves to consistency. They most likely do not. Learners need to be asked to assess their performance on a regular basis. Their performance must be carefully and closely linked with the particular skills that they are working on. Learner ability to accurately self-assess language performance is not automatic. Therefore, constant feedback within a formative, as well as summative framework is a crucial factor for obtaining reliable self-assessment results. Though, there is strong evidence that self-assessments yield consistent
and homogeneous results, self-assessment is not a panacea for all testing problems, and the field is fraught with problematic issues.

Research into the reliability and validity of self-assessment among ESL/EFL students has thus yielded mixed results. Some studies have reported agreement between students’ self-awarded ratings and ratings awarded by their teacher (AlFallay\textsuperscript{74}, 2004; Chen\textsuperscript{75}, 2005) or scores that students expected to get in a test and those they actually obtained (Bachman and Palmaer\textsuperscript{76}, 1989) and suggested that students are able to assess their language proficiency accurately. However, discrepancy has also been found between students’ self-ratings and ratings from other sources (Blue, 1988, 1994; Patri\textsuperscript{77}, 2002; Wangsotorn\textsuperscript{78}, 1981; Yang\textsuperscript{79}, 2002). Despite the contradictory findings, literature in this area generally holds the proposition that practice, support, and experience are key factors to increase the accuracy of self-assessment (AlFallay, 2004; Chen, 2005; Tara, 2001).

Further research is needed, not only to investigate the many validity and reliability issues involved, but also to help establish the place of self-assessment in the complete measurement and evaluation process.
Ways to make self-assessment

A language course can only deal with a small fraction of the foreign language; therefore, one objective of language courses should be to teach learners how to carry on the language learning independently and one of the effective ways to do this is art of teaching self-assessment. Many ways have been designed for conducting self-assessment. In spite of the criticisms leveled against self-assessment in terms of validity and reliability, educators have successfully used the following self-assessment techniques and procedures in the classroom.

Computer Assessment

CAL is often used for formative assessment. A program designed for the subject is asking questions and students can check how much they know. They get immediate feedback in the form of the number of ‘hits’, and can usually do the test over and over again to practice. However the disadvantage with this way of testing is that students might memorize the answers to the questions instead of really understanding the problem.

Computerised assessment is, so far, mostly used in relation to self assessment, and is then used to give students feedback. However, CAL assessment is not
completely self assessed, since it is the teacher who told the machine what is right and wrong.

**Reflective journal or log book**

This is a way of continuous assessment where the students are asked to be aware of their process of learning. They note down their actions and reflect on them in effort to help with learning. A teacher can get students to think about What have you learnt? How well was it presented? What could be improved? How would you have presented it to a class? How do you know you have learned this?

**Student Progress Cards**

Oscarsson (1984) describes student progress cards as simple self-assessment tools, which have been used in a variety of educational settings around the world. Quite simply, student progress cards define series of short-term functional goals and group these together in graded blocks at various levels of difficulty. Both students and teachers can participate in this activity. The student can tick off (in the learner column) each language skill or activity that he/she is sure of performing successfully. The teacher can later tick off (in the
teacher column) the activity once the learner has mastered it. A sample activity follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ability</th>
<th>Student</th>
<th>Teacher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Read and understand texts on a travel theme.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listen and understand passages on a travel theme.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talk about past and future trips or holidays.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Write an itinerary for an upcoming vacation.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Rating Scales, Check lists and Questionnaires**

A popular technique in the area of self-assessment has been the use of rating scales, checklists and questionnaires. These three techniques have been used as a means where learners could rate their perceived general language proficiency or ability level. A lot of developmental work has been done in this area through the use of “ability statements” such as “I can read and understand newspaper articles intended for native speakers of the language.” (Coombe 1992; Oscarsson 1984).
Consider the following listening example taken from Raasch (1979). To complete the activity, the learner indicates his estimated ability to cope with situations by ticking the described level of performance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I understand the language as well as a native speaker</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I understand most of what is said in the language even when spoken by native speakers, but have difficulty in understanding dialects and slang. It is also difficult for me to understand speech in unfavorable conditions (i.e. through bad loudspeakers outdoors etc.)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can follow and understand the essential points concerning everyday and general things when spoken normally and clearly, but do not understand native speakers if they speak very quickly or use slang or dialect</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I do not understand the language at all</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Learner Diaries and Dialog Journals**

Learner diaries and dialog journals have been proposed as one way of systematizing self-assessment for students (Oscarsson 1984; Dickinson 1987).
Learners should be encouraged to write about what they learned, their perceived level of mastery over the course content, and what they plan to do with their acquired skills.

**Videotapes**

In today’s technological age, no other audiovisual aid can match the potential of the video recorder. Video can be exploited in a number of ways to encourage self-assessment in the classroom. For example, students can be videotaped or they can videotape each other and then assess their language skills. An obvious advantage to the use of video in self-assessment is that students can assess not only their communicative or language skills but their paralinguistic (i.e. body language) skills as well.

**Opinionnaire**

In this exercise, various aspects of SDL are given and the learner is to rate himself/herself on a scale from 1, “Not self-directed at all,” to 10, “Very self-directed.” This not being a test, there are no right answers. This would be a personal survey for an individual use in deciding how to become more self-directed. One can make his/her response useful by being as clear and accurate as s/he can.
How Self-Directed Are You?

The item on the left describes “1” - Not self-directed; the item on the right describes “10” - Very self-directed. Circle the number that most accurately rates where you stand on the scale.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Attribution:</th>
<th>In my opinion, people succeed in life because …</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>They are lucky</td>
<td>1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. They make it happen</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Openness:</td>
<td>When new ideas, approaches, techniques or equipment come along,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. Positive</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Influence:</td>
<td>When I decide to do something, I am most strongly influenced by…</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other people</td>
<td>1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. My own decisions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Self-awareness:</td>
<td>My knowledge about my personal strengths and capacities is …</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Very limited</td>
<td>1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. Very complete</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interests:</td>
<td>I have a number of interests that I pursue regularly.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>False</strong></td>
<td>1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. <strong>True</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Effectiveness:</td>
<td>If I decided to make a change in my life, I would likely …</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Be unable to do it</strong></td>
<td>1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. <strong>Do it successfully</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Curiosity:</td>
<td>In the course of a day or week I find myself asking questions and searching for answers …</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Very seldom</strong></td>
<td>1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. <strong>Very often</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Clarity:</td>
<td>What I want to do next is usually …</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>A mystery to me</strong></td>
<td>1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. <strong>Clear to me</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Learning:</td>
<td>I find new ideas or skills that I want to learn …</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Very rarely</strong></td>
<td>1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. <strong>Every day</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Creating:</td>
<td>I have original ideas worth expressing …</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Very seldom</strong></td>
<td>1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. <strong>Very often</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Goal-Setting:</td>
<td>In my day-to-day life, I …</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Take things as</strong></td>
<td>1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. <strong>Regular</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>they come</td>
<td>ly set goals to achieve</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Challenge:</td>
<td>I challenge myself to go into new activities and to reach new levels of performance …</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. Often</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Planning:</td>
<td>When I have a task to complete, I lay out a strategic plan for doing it efficiently and effectively …</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not in my lifetime</td>
<td>1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. Every time</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Determination:</td>
<td>When I’m doing a project and the work gets difficult, I run into problems, or people hassle me …</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I quit</td>
<td>1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. I perseverance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>Organization:</td>
<td>When it comes to scheduling my time, prioritizing my work, and gathering the resources I need, I’m…</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hopeless</td>
<td>1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. Skilled</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>Support:</td>
<td>When I plan and launch a project, I feel that those around me—family, colleagues, friends—will…</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ignore or diminish</td>
<td>1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. Support and encourage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Learning:</td>
<td>The special, personal ways that I learn best, Are unknown to me</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. I know and use</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Motivation:</th>
<th>Can you motivate yourself to start new projects and to keep going until they are finished?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Openness:</th>
<th>When new ideas, approaches, techniques or equipment come along, I ignore them</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. I find out about them</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Assistance:</th>
<th>When I need guidance or assistance…</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. I ask for help</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Self-examination:</th>
<th>When I’m messing up, and I’m feeling low…</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. I try to figure out what’s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Process analysis:</td>
<td>When a project I am working on breaks down…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>I quit</em></td>
<td>1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. <em>I figure out what’s going wrong and fix it</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>Skills:</td>
<td>I use a very effective procedure for learning new skills.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>False</td>
<td>1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. True</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>Vision:</td>
<td>I have a vision of my future that I want to make happen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>False</td>
<td>1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. True</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>Voice:</td>
<td>Do you know your own ideas about things, your own feelings, the values that you consider important, the contributions that you want to make—in other words, do you know yourself?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26.</td>
<td>Field:</td>
<td>Is there a field of knowledge (eg. astronomy), a field of activity (eg. writing music), a profession (eg. medicine) or work (eg. starting a business) that you want to be very good at?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Expectation:
When I begin a project I usually expect to **fail**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>1.</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3.</th>
<th>4.</th>
<th>5.</th>
<th>6.</th>
<th>7.</th>
<th>8.</th>
<th>9.</th>
<th>10.</th>
<th>Yes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

### Strategy:
When you want something to happen, do you think through a strategy to make it happen?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>1.</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3.</th>
<th>4.</th>
<th>5.</th>
<th>6.</th>
<th>7.</th>
<th>8.</th>
<th>9.</th>
<th>10.</th>
<th>Yes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

### Celebration:
When I achieve a goal, complete a project, or make a contribution:

- **I move to the next task**
- **I celebrate**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1.</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3.</th>
<th>4.</th>
<th>5.</th>
<th>6.</th>
<th>7.</th>
<th>8.</th>
<th>9.</th>
<th>10.</th>
<th>I celebrate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

### Pleasure:
When I’m doing one of my projects...

- **It’s grim, dull work**
- **I am happy and fulfilled**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1.</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3.</th>
<th>4.</th>
<th>5.</th>
<th>6.</th>
<th>7.</th>
<th>8.</th>
<th>9.</th>
<th>10.</th>
<th>I am happy and fulfilled</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

While attempting the opinionnaire one needs to be true to oneself and that is the beauty of self directed learning as one is learning out of desire, necessity not out of any external compulsion. In this way, the answers given in the opinionnaire are meaningful only to the person taking it. In a way, it is a kind of self-assessment or introspection for that matter; an attempt to know oneself in a better way, to peep into the inner recesses of one’s mind.
This opinionnaire helps the learner to learn a lot about his/her status as a self-directed learner. Items ranked from 6 to 10 show the strength of the test taker whereas items rated lower than 5 help the learner to know the aspects he needs to improve. One has to do self-analysis on that basis find out if there is any common pattern in things he needs to improve. Having learnt this, he should start devising the strategies to improve his performance in terms of self-directed learning. In self-direction, evaluation is usually self-evaluation for improvement.

**Self-Assessment Report**

**Aim:**

The self-assessment report is to be completed and handed in at the end of the course. Its aim is twofold:

- diagnostic - to help you identify areas to improve as a learner;
- evaluative - to help you grade your commitment to the subject throughout the year both in and outside the classroom.
**Instructions:**

When deciding upon your final grade please note that the first item, attendance, conditions the maximum grade you will grant yourself as it is multiplied by half of the sum of the remaining items.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. I attended classes:</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&gt;=59%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;=70</td>
<td>0.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;=80%</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;=90%</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;=100%</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2. I was punctual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Usually</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occasionally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>3. I brought the necessary materials to class</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Usually</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occasionally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>4. I did the assignments to the best of my ability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Usually</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occasionally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>5. I intervened whenever pertinent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Usually</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occasionally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6. I reflected upon the subject matter and related it to my personal experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Usually</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In class</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside class</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7. I tried out new learning strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Usually</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In class</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside class</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8. I used English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Usually</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In class</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside class</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9. I participated actively in the activities to the best of my ability

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Usually</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In class</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside class</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10. I carried out the tasks assigned within the time allotted

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Usually</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In class</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside class</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11. I criticized constructively

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Usually</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In class</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside class</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

12. I listened to and respected other people's opinions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Usually</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In class</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside class</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13. I was open to the suggestions of others

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Usually</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In class</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside class</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

14. I was able to overcome problems

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Usually</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In class</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside class</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

15. I was willing and available to work with group members

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Usually</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In class</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside class</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 16. I was willing to help others

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Usually</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In class</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside class</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 17. I monitored myself

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Usually</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In class</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside class</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 18. I looked for further reading about the subject matter and read it

| Outside class | 20 | 16 | 8 | 2 |

### 19. I compensated absences with investigation

| Outside class | 30 | 20 | 16 | 4 |

Thus, there are a number of ways of using self-assessment in the classroom. It allows students to map their knowledge of the language at various points.
within a course and/or semester. It also assists students in the development of critical faculties and enables students to look at language in more concrete terms. Through the use of the techniques mentioned, self-assessment can motivate students to look at their strengths and weaknesses and become more self-directed learners which is a fundamental part of the learning process.

**Perspectives on Self Assessment**

Research have been done but found to be inadequate. Due to this, research into self-assessment to date has meant that most justifications have been a mixture of the educational, humanistic, philosophical, sociological and psychological perspectives. Thus, Dickinson invokes learning theory, claiming that

the ability to evaluate the effectiveness of one’s own performance in a foreign language is an important skill in learning and particularly important when the learning becomes autonomous (Dickinson, 1987).

Harris stresses the psychological benefits of self-assessment:

Above all, they [learners] can be helped to perceive their own progress and encouraged to see the value of what they are learning. ... The best motive to learn is a perception of the value of the thing learned (Harris, 1997).
Van Lier voices the humanist perspective:

In addition to ‘normal’ testing, we need to pay attention to the basic moral purpose of education: promoting the self-actualization of every learner, to the fullest” (Van Lier, 1996: 120), and Harris draws attention to the importance of affect: “If we attend to the affective and cognitive components of students’ attitudes … we may be able to increase the length of time students commit to language study and their chances of success in it (Harris, 1997).

Harris sees self-assessment as a way of attending to such attitudes, since it encourages the student to become part of the whole process of language learning, and to be aware of his/her progress. Dickinson associates self-assessment with the process paradigm in language teaching (1987), and a number of authors stress the learner-centered nature of self-assessment (Harris, 1997; Van Lier, 1996; Oscarsson, 1978). Harris (1997) sees self-assessment as a practical tool that should be integrated into everyday classroom activities, and Blanche proposes that self-appraisal “would be particularly helpful in the case of false beginners” (Blanche, 1988).

To summarize, self-assessment is the process of critically reviewing the quality of one’s own performance and provision. Self-assessment may be undertaken on an individual basis or, in the context of external quality review,
on a collective basis. Self-assessment is used interchangeably with self-evaluation and self-study in the context of higher education quality. They all involve a process of self-reflection. The use of self-assessment strategies throughout the year provides students with information about the quality and direction of their work. Giving students the opportunity for reflection empowers them to see ways in which the processes and products of their work are improving. In addition, self-assessment allows students to set goals for future learning experiences.

End Notes:


20. ibid

21. ibid


33. ibid
37. ibid

40. ibid


75. Chen, P. H. *IRT-based Automated Test Assembly: A Sampling and Stratification Perspective.* University of Texas at Austin, 2005.


